



This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

- + *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.
- + *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.
- + *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.
- + *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at <http://books.google.com/>

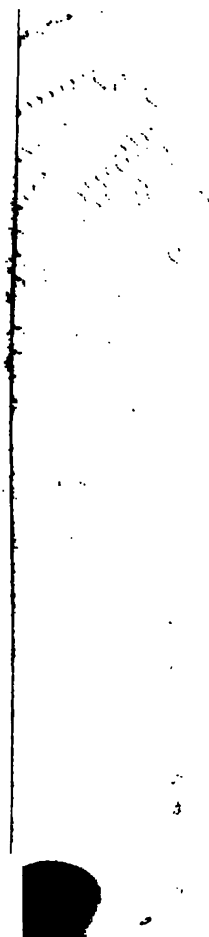
AUNT JANE'S
GRAMMAR

30276 f. 166

30274.







AUNT JANE'S GRAMMAR.

QUESTION AND ANSWER,

For the Use of Schools and Families.

BY

MISS WARREN.

LONDON:

W. AND T. PIPER,

23, PATERNOSTER-ROW.

1850.

LONDON :
JOSEPH RICKERBY, PRINTER,
SHERBOURN LANE.



P R E F A C E.

GRAMMAR is, of all studies, the most uninteresting to children ; they have no idea of the meaning of the terms used, and very few inquire for themselves : some feel discouraged on seeing so many “ hard words,” and others frequently become impatient when any explanation is offered. The compiler of this little volume has endeavoured to render it as “ easy ” as possible, and hopes that it will prove useful both to the teacher and pupil. Questions and answers have been adopted as the best means of instruction, which plan is continued as far as the rules of syntax. In the fourth part they are resumed. Several of the writer’s pupils having made use of Mr. Hunt’s Syntax of the English Language with much advantage, *she was*

induced to copy the rules, and annex them to her little book ; they form, however, but a very small part of that useful work. To Lindley Murray's she has often referred, and to the grammar by the Rev. Robert Simson ; also to the Rudiments of English Composition, by Alexander Reid, a volume which will be found a valuable acquisition to the family library.

AUNT JANE'S GRAMMAR.

WHAT is *grammar* ?

Grammar is the art of speaking and writing correctly.

How is grammar divided ?

Grammar is divided into four parts

What are they called ?

Orthography, etymology, syntax, and prosody.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

PART I.

What do you call the first part ?

The first part of grammar is called *orthography*.

What is orthography ?

Orthography teaches the art of spelling.

From what is the word *orthography* derived ?

From the Greek word *orthos*, which means straight, erect, right ; hence, *orthography*, the art of right spelling. The last part of the word is derived from the Greek word *grapho*, to engrave, to write ; hence, *graphic*, well described. *Gramma* is the Greek word for letter ; hence, *grammar*, the art of correct writing.

How many *letters* are there in the English alphabet ?

There are twenty-six letters in the English alphabet.

From what is the word *alphabet* derived ?

From *alpha* and *beta*, the first and second letters of the Greek alphabet.

How are these letters divided ?

Into *vowels* and *consonants*.

Which are the *vowels* ?

The vowels (which have a perfect sound of themselves) are, *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*, and sometimes *w* and *y*.

What are all the other letters called ?

The other letters of the alphabet are called *consonants*, which are imperfect sounds, and require the help of a vowel.

Give me some examples.

A, *e*, *i*, *o*, and *u*, are perfect, which require no other letter ; *a*, being the first syllable in the word *a-gue* ; *e*, in *e-ven* ; *i*, in *i-tem* ; *o*, in *o-pen* ; and *u*, in *u-sual* ; but no word or syllable can be formed of consonants alone.

When are *w* and *y* vowels ?

W and *y* are vowels when they do not begin a word or syllable.

When are they consonants ?

W and *y* are consonants when they begin a word or syllable.

Are *w* and *y* vowels or consonants in the following words, *bow*, *joy*, *how-ever*, *boy-ish* ?

They are vowels, because they are placed at the end of the word or syllable.

What are they in the following words, *wind*, *year*, *young*, *windmill* ?

They are consonants, because they are placed at the beginning of a word or syllable.

From what is the word *vowel* derived?

From the Latin word *vocalis*, a vowel, which is a sound of itself, and does not require the aid of any other letter.

How are the consonants divided?

Consonants are divided into *mutes* and *semi-vowels*.

Which are the *mutes*?

The mutes are *b, p, t, d, k*, and *c*, and *g* hard, which cannot be distinctly sounded without the aid of a vowel.

Which are the *semi-vowels*?

The semi-vowels, which have an imperfect sound of themselves, are, *f, l, m, n, r, v, s, z, x*, and *c*, and *g* soft

Which of the semi-vowels are called *liquids*?

The liquids are *l, m, n, r*, and they are so called from their readily uniting with other consonants, and flowing into their sounds.

What are *labials*?

Those syllables formed by the lips, from *labium*, the Latin for lip.

What are *dentals*?

Those which are formed by the teeth, from *dens, dentis*, the Latin for tooth.

What are *palatals*?

Those formed by the palate.

What are *nasals*?

Those formed through the nose.

What are *guttural sounds*?

Those pronounced in the throat.

From what is the word *guttural* derived?

From the Latin word *guttur*, throat.

What is the word *consonant* derived from ?

From the Latin word *consonans*, consonant ; sounding with, or together ; agreeing with, in unison with, or with the aid of another letter.

What is a *diphthong* ?

A diphthong is the union of two vowels pronounced by a single sound of the voice, as *ea*, in beat, and *ou*, in sound.

What is a *triphthong* ?

A triphthong is the union of three vowels, pronounced in the same manner as the above, as *eau*, in beau ; *iew*, in view. (*Tri* means three ; from the Greek *treis*, *tria* ; and from the Latin, *tres*, *tria*.)

What is a *proper diphthong* ?

A proper diphthong is that in which both the vowels are sounded, as *oi*, in voice, *ou*, in ounce.

What is an *improper diphthong* ?

An improper diphthong has but one of the vowels sounded, as *ea*, in eagle ; *oa*, in coal.

What is a *syllable* ?

A syllable is a sound either simple or compound, pronounced by a single sound of the voice, being a word, or part of a word.

What is the difference between *simple* and *compound* ?

Simple means a single letter, and compound means a syllable composed of two or more letters.

What is a word of one syllable called ?

A word of one syllable is a *monosyllable*.—
(*Monos*, Greek for alone)

What do you call a word of two syllables ?

A word of two syllables is a *dissyllable*. (*Dis* means twice ; hence, dissyllable, a word of two syllables. Greek)

What is a word of three syllables called ?

A word of three syllables is called a *trisyllable*. (*Treis, tria*, Greek. *Tres, tria*, Latin, three.)

What is a word of four or more syllables called ?

A word of four or more syllables is a *polysyllable*. (*Poly* means many, from the Greek *polus*.)

From what is the word *syllable* derived ?

The word *syllable* is derived from the Greek : it means as much of a word as is uttered by one articulation, or one sound of the voice.

What are words called which cannot be reduced to a more simple word ?

Those words which cannot be reduced to a more simple word are called *primitives* ; as, *man*, *great*, *free*, *good*. (Primitive means original, from the Latin *primus*, first.)

What is a *derivative* word ?

A derivative may be reduced to another word of greater simplicity : as, *manly* may be reduced to *man*, from which it is derived ; *greatness*, to *great* ; *freedom*, to *free* ; and *goodness*, to *good*. (Derivative means derived, or taken from another.)

ETYMOLOGY.

PART II.

What do you call the second part of grammar ?

The second part of grammar is called *etymology*.

What is *etymology*?

Etymology teaches the use of the different parts of speech.

How many *parts of speech* are there?

There are nine parts of speech; namely, the *article*, the *noun* or *substantive*, the *adjective*, the *pronoun*, the *verb*, the *adverb*, the *preposition*, the *conjunction*, and the *interjection*.

From what is the word *etymology* derived?

From the Greek word *etumos*, true, genuine; and from *etumon*, the genuine origin of a word; also, from *etymon*, primitive word.

What is an *article*?

An article is a word placed before a noun or substantive; as, *a* child, *an* oak, *the* house.

How many articles are there?

There are two articles;—*a* or *an*, and *the*.

What is *a* or *an* called?

A or *an* is called the *indefinite article*.

What is the meaning of *indefinite*?

The word *indefinite* means, not settled, not certain.

Give me an example.

If you were to tell me to give you *a* book, no particular book having been mentioned, I should bring any book which I might happen to see.

Which is the definite article?

The definite article *the* points out some particular object.

What is the meaning of the word *definite*?

Definite means settled or certain.

Give me an example.

If you were to say, bring me *the* book, I should know what book you meant, because it would be some book of which you had been speaking

What is the difference between *a* and *an*?

A is used before words beginning with a consonant, as *a* chair, *a* house. *An* is used before words beginning with a vowel and a mute or silent *h*; as, *an* eagle, *an* hour.

What is a *mute* or *silent h*?

When the *h* is not aspirated or sounded, it is called a mute or silent *h*; as, *an* heir, *an* herb.

From what is the word *article* derived?

The word article is derived from the Greek word *aro*, to fit, and from the Latin word *artus*, a joint, or what may be joined; as the article is joined to a noun.

What is a *substantive* or *noun*?

A substantive or noun is the name of anything of which we can speak; as a *child*, a *farm*, *music*, *writing*, *education*, *grammar*, *goodness*, &c. (Noun is derived from the Latin *nomen*, *nominis*, a name.)

Of how many kinds are nouns or substantives?

Nouns or substantives are of two kinds, *proper* and *common*.

Explain the difference.

Proper nouns or substantives are the names of persons, as *John*, *Eliza*; of places, as *London*, *Dover*; of rivers, as the *Thames*; and of moun-

tains, as *Snowdon* ; and of objects which are distinguished by any particular name.

What is a *common noun* or *substantive* ?

A common noun or substantive is the name of anything in general ; as a *man*, a *town*, a *garden*, a *dress*, a *watch*, an *organ*, an *oven*, &c.

What is a *collective noun*, or *noun of multitude* ?

A collective noun, or noun of multitude, is so called because it is a number of objects collected together ; making but one object ; as a *crowd*, a *flock*, an *assembly*.

How are nouns further distinguished ?

By gender, number, case, and person.

How many *genders* are there ?

There are three genders ; the *masculine*, the *feminine*, and the *neuter*.

What is the *masculine gender* ?

The masculine gender denotes objects of the male kind, as a *king*, a *man*, a *lion*, &c.

What is the *feminine gender* ?

The feminine gender denotes objects of the female kind, as a *queen*, a *woman*, a *lioness*, &c.

How many methods are there of distinguishing the sexes ?

There are three methods ; first, by different words, as, *boy*, *girl* ; *brother*, *sister* ; *earl*, *countess* ; *father*, *mother* ; *son*, *daughter*, &c. : secondly, by a difference of termination of a word, or the ending of a word ; as, *abbot*, *abbess* ; *baron*, *baroness* ; *count*, *countess* ; *hero*, *heroine* ; *hunter*, *huntress*, &c. : and, thirdly, by prefixing

or placing before the substantive or noun, an adjective, a pronoun, or a noun ; as, a *man*-servant, a *maid*-servant ; a *male*-child, a *female*-child ; a *he*-goat, a *she*-goat, &c. *Man*, *maid* ; *male*, and *female*, are nouns when made use of alone ; but, when those words are placed before other nouns, they become adjectives. (*He* and *she* are pronouns.)

What other observation have you to make respecting nouns ?

In some cases the same word may be used for both genders ; as, *parent*, *child* ; *cousin*, *friend* ; *neighbour*, *servant*, &c.

Explain the *neuter gender*.

The neuter gender relates to objects which are neither male nor female ; as, a *chair*, a *desk*, an *orange*, the *carpet*, &c.

Are not *he* and *she* sometimes used for objects of the neuter gender ?

Yes ; in figurative language, the *sun* is masculine, and the *moon* feminine ; *ship* is also feminine ; *time* is masculine, and *virtue* feminine.

What do you mean by *figurative*, or a *figure of speech* ?

Figurative language, or a figure of speech, is the same as an emblem or representation.

What is a *noun abstract* ?

A noun abstract is a name given to things which exist only in the mind or understanding ; as, *virtue*, *glory*, *honour*.

What are *epicene nouns* ?

Epicene nouns may be used for both sexes ; as, an *eagle*, a *sparrow*, a *mouse*, a *rat*, a *cat*.

What is the meaning of the word *gender* ?

It is the same as the Latin word *genus*, which means a kind, a sort.

How many *numbers* are there ?

There are two numbers, the *singular* and the *plural*.

Explain them.

The singular number means one single person or thing ; as, a *girl*, a *house* ; and the plural number more than one ; as, *girls*, *houses*.

How is the *plural* of nouns generally formed ?

The plural of nouns is generally formed by adding the letter *s* to the singular ; as, singular, *book* ; plural, *books* ; singular, *tree* ; plural, *trees*.

Is the plural always formed by adding *s* ?

Not always : those words which end in *x*, *ch* soft, *sh*, *ss*, and *s*, take *es* in the plural ; as *box*, *boxes* ; *church*, *churches* ; *lash*, *lashes* ; *kiss*, *kisses* ; *rebus*, *rebuses*. (*Rebus*, a kind of riddle, a word represented by a picture)

How do you form the plural of those words ending in *ch* hard ?

Those words which end in *ch* hard, take only *s* in the plural ; as, *monarch*, *monarchs* ; *distich*, *distichs*.—(*Ch* hard, or sounding like *k*.)

(*Distich*, in poetry, a couplet, a couple of lines. *Dis* is the Greek for twice.)

Name some nouns which are only used in the *singular* number.

The following are always singular: *wheat, pitch, gold, pride, sloth.*

Name some nouns which are always *plural*.

The following are always plural: *bellows, scissors, ashes, riches.*

Mention some which are the *same in both numbers*.

The following are the same in both numbers: *deer, sheep, swine.*

When nouns end in *o*, how is the plural generally formed?

Nouns ending in *o* often take *es* to form the plural; as, *potato, potatoes; cargo, cargoes; hero, heroes; volcano, volcanoes; manifesto, manifestoes; wo, woes*; but *folio, nuncio, punctilio, and seraglio*, take only *s*.

How are nouns ending in *f* or *fe* rendered plural?

Nouns ending in *f* or *fe* change those terminations into *ves*; as, *loaf, loaves; half, halves; wife, wives*; but *grief, relief, reproof*, and some others, are exceptions, and take *s*; also those words ending in *ff*, as, *ruff, ruffs; muff, muffs*; but the plural of *staff* is *staves*.

How do you form the plural of words ending in *y*?

Those ending in *y*, with no other vowel in the same syllable, change the *y* into *ies*; as, *beauty, beauties; fly, flies*; but when there is another vowel in the syllable the *y* is not changed, as, *key, keys; delay, delays*.

Are there any other exceptions to the general rule?

Yes; some nouns become plural by changing *a* into *e*; as, *man, men; woman, women; alderman, aldermen*. The plural of *ox* is *oxen*, and *child, children; brother, brothers or brethren*. Sometimes *oo* is changed into *ee*; as, *foot, feet; goose, geese; tooth, teeth; mouse makes mice; penny, pence, or pennies*, when the coin is meant; *die, dice*; which are used for playing; and *die, dies*, for coining. The word *news* is generally considered singular. The word *means* is used for either singular or plural.

From what is the word *plural* derived?

From *plus, pluris*, Latin for more, contracted from the Greek, *polus*, many.

What is the meaning of *case*?

Case means the state or position of a noun in a sentence.

How many cases have nouns?

Nouns have three cases; the *nominative*, the *possessive*, and the *objective*.

Explain the *nominative* case.

The *nominative* names, or expresses the name of a thing, or the subject of the verb; as, the *moon* shines; the *child* learns. It answers to the question who; as, Who learns?—The child, is the answer.

What case is *moon* in the foregoing sentence?

Moon is the *nominative* case, and is placed before the word *shines*, which is a verb.

What case is *child* in the sentence before mentioned ?

Child is the nominative case, and is placed before the word *learns*, which is a verb.

Do you know what a *verb* is ?

Whatever I do is a verb ; as, I *eat*, I *play*, I *learn* ; or, *to eat*, *to play*, *to learn*.

Tell me the parts of speech of the following words :—*The moon shines ; the child learns*.

The is an article definite, and it points out a particular object—*the* moon, before which it is placed ; *moon* is a noun or substantive, because I can speak of it, and see it ; and *shines* is a verb. *The* is a definite article, *child* is a noun or substantive, and *learns* is a verb, because whatever can be done is a verb.

Why is the nominative case called the *agent* ?

The nominative case is called the agent, because the word *agent* means a person who acts. Example :—*Ellen* learns, she plays, she laughs.

What is the *possessive* case ?

The possessive case denotes something belonging to a person or thing : it is so called because it refers to possession or property. It is generally formed by adding an *s* with an apostrophe, as *Jane's* book, or, the book of, or belonging to, Jane ; *my mother's* house, or, the house of my mother. The sign of the possessive case is *of*. It is also called the *genitive* case.

Where is the apostrophe placed in the singular number ?

The apostrophe is placed before the *s* in the singular number ; as, my *father's* house, my *sister's* doll.

Where is the apostrophe placed in the plural number ?

The apostrophe is placed after the letter *s* in the plural number, as, the *girls'* school, meaning the school of the girls ; the *boys'* holiday, or, the holiday of the boys.

Have you any other observation to make respecting the possessive case ?

In the possessive case, when the plural ends in *s*, it is not necessary to add another *s*, but the apostrophe must be used, and placed after the *s* ; as, *eagles'* eyes, or the eyes of eagles.

Where is the apostrophe placed if the word ends in *ss* ?

When a word ends in *ss* no other *s* is added ; but the apostrophe must be retained, and placed after the *ss* ; as, for *quietness'* sake, or, for the sake of quietness.

Is the apostrophe always placed after the *s* in the plural number of the possessive case ?

No ; the apostrophe is placed before the *s*, both in the singular and plural, when they are differently spelt ; as, the *man's* house, the *men's* industry ; the *woman's* child, the *women's* work.

What is the *objective* case ?

The objective case is the object of the verb, or *the object acted upon*, and generally follows a verb-*active* or a *preposition* ; as, Eliza teaches Mary.

Eliza is the agent, or nominative case, placed before the verb teaches ; and Mary is the objective case, or object acted upon, and comes after the verb.

Which is the objective case in the following sentence—Jane takes care of *Julia* ?

Julia is the objective case, and follows the preposition, *of*. The objective case answers to the question, whom : as, whom do you teach ?—My sister, is the answer. Sister is the objective case.

What is the objective case sometimes called ?

The objective is sometimes called the *accusative* case.

All nouns are of the third person, either singular or plural.

What is an *adjective* ?

An adjective is a word added to a noun, to express the quality or state of the noun, as a *good* girl, a *ripe* peach, a *large* room, a *fine* day.

Point out the adjectives you have named, and those in the following sentence :—I saw a *beautiful* tree, growing near an *old* castle, on a *high* hill.

What do you mean by *comparison* ?

Comparing one object with another.

How many degrees of comparison have adjectives ?

There are, properly speaking, only two, the *comparative* and the *superlative*, but we generally say there are three, the *positive*, the *comparative*, and the *superlative*.

Give me some examples.

I speak *positively* when I say, this muslin is *white* ; and when I compare it with paper, I say, that paper is *whiter* ; therefore, whiter is comparative ; but, as snow is whitest, I call *whitest* superlative. The superlative is either the highest or lowest in degree.

Repeat the examples.

Positive, this muslin is *white* ; comparative, that paper is *whiter* ; superlative, snow is *whitest*.

How do you form the comparative of words of one syllable ?

The comparative of words of one syllable is sometimes formed by adding *r*, or *er*, to the positive ; as, positive, *wise* ; comparative, *wiser* ; positive, *great* ; comparative, *greater*.

How is the *superlative* formed ?

The superlative is formed by adding *st* or *est* to the positive ; as, positive, *wise* ; superlative, *wisest* ; positive, *great* ; superlative, *greatest*.

How are adjectives of more than one syllable compared ?

Adjectives of more than one syllable are compared by the words *more* and *most* ; as, positive, *generous* ; comparative, *more generous* ; superlative, *most generous*.

Are there any exceptions to these rules ?

Yes ; the following adjectives are irregular, and differ from the general rule ; as, positive, *good*, comparative, *better*, superlative, *best* ; *bad*, *worse*, *worst* ; *little*, *less*, *least* ; *much* or *many*, *more*, *most* ; *near*, *nearer*, *nearest* or *next* ; *late*, *later*,

latest or *last* ; *old*, *older* or *elder* ; *oldest* or *eldest* ; and some others.

When do adjectives become substantives ?

An adjective without a substantive, having the article *the* before it, becomes a substantive ; as, " Cultivate the friendship of the *good*, and avoid the society of the *bad*." Good and bad are nouns in this sentence.

Do nouns ever become adjectives ?

Some nouns, when placed before other nouns, take the nature of adjectives ; as, *sea-weed*, *wine-bottle*, *hay-field*, *manor-house*.

Are there any other adjectives ?

There are adjectives of number ; as, *one*, *two*, *three*, *four*, *five*, *six*, &c., which are called *cardinal numbers* ; also, the *ordinal numbers*, *first*, *second*, *third*, &c. are adjectives.

What is a *pronoun* ?

A pronoun is a word used instead of a noun.

What is the meaning of pronoun ?

Pro is the Latin for the word *for* ; and *noun* means *name*.

Explain the use of a pronoun.

If I were to say, Edward is a good boy, Edward is very obedient, and pays great attention to Edward's lessons ; you would be tired of hearing the word Edward repeated so often.

What word should you use instead ?

The pronoun *he* ; therefore I should say, Edward is a good boy ; *he* is very obedient, and pays great attention to *his* lessons.

Is there any other pronoun in the sentence ?

Yes ; *his* is also a pronoun.

How many kinds of pronouns are there ?

There are three kinds of pronouns ; the *personal*, the *relative*, and the *demonstrative*.

What are *personal pronouns* ?

Those pronouns which relate to persons.

How many personal pronouns are there ?

There are five personal pronouns : *I*, is the first person ; *thou*, is the second person ; *he*, the third person singular for the masculine gender, and *she*, the third person singular for the feminine gender. The pronoun *it* is also the third person singular for the neuter. When speaking of myself, I say, *I* or *me*, which is the first person. *Thou* or *thee*, being spoken to, is the second person ; and *he* or *him*, being spoken of, is the third person masculine ; and *she* and *her*, which are feminine.

What pronouns are used in the plural number ?

We and *us*, for the first person plural ; *ye* or *you*, for the second ; and *they* and *them*, for the third.

Which of the personal pronouns admit of gender ?

Gender has respect to the third person singular only ; *he* and *him* are masculine ; *she* and *her* are feminine ; and *it* is neuter ; but the third person plural, *they* or *them*, is used for the masculine, feminine, and neuter.

How many *numbers* have pronouns ?

Pronouns have two numbers, the *singular* and the *plural*.

How many persons are there in each number ?

There are three persons in each number : three in the singular and three in the plural. In the singular number, *I* is the first person ; *thou* is the second ; and *he, she, or it* is the third. In the plural, *we* is the first person ; *ye, or you* is the second ; and *they* is the third.

Of what do personal pronouns admit ?

Personal pronouns admit of *person, number, gender, and case.*

How many *cases* have personal pronouns ?

Personal pronouns have three cases ; first, the *nominative* case, which is generally placed before the verb, and answers to the question who ; as, Who teaches Caroline ? The answer is, *I* teach her : *I* being the nominative case. Secondly, the *possessive* case, which denotes possession or property, and which answers to the question whose ; as, Whose is it ? The answer is, *mine, or his, ours, &c.*, according to the person. Thirdly, the *objective* case, which answers to the question whom ; as, To whom are you writing ? The answer is, *To him, to her, to them, &c.*

Why is the nominative case so called ?

Because it names or declares : the word *nominative* has the same meaning ; it means, to name.

Why is the objective so called ?

Because it is the object acted upon by the *nominative* or agent.

Give me an example.

She reproves me : *she* is the *nominative*, and is placed before the verb ; *me* is the object acted upon.

What is the meaning of the word *decline* ?

In grammar, to decline, is to alter or vary.

Decline the personal pronouns.

| | | |
|------------------------|-------------------------|--------------------|
| First Person Sing. | Nominative Case . I. | Plural, We. |
| | Possessive Case . Mine. | Plural, Ours. |
| | Objective Case . Me. | Plural, Us. |
| Second Person Sing. | Nominative . Thou. | Plural, Ye or you. |
| | Possessive . Thine. | Plural, Yours. |
| | Objective . Thee. | Plural, You. |
| Third Pers. Sin. Mas. | Nominative . He. | Plural, They. |
| | Possessive . His. | Plural, Theirs. |
| | Objective . Him. | Plural, Them. |
| Third Pers. Sin. Fem. | Nominative . She. | Plural, They. |
| | Possessive . Hers. | Plural, Theirs. |
| | Objective . Her. | Plural, Them. |
| Third Pers. Sin. Neut. | Nominative . It. | Plural, They. |
| | Possessive . Its. | Plural, Theirs. |
| | Objective . It. | Plural, Them. |

Which are the *relative pronouns* ?

The relative pronouns are, *who*, *which*, and *that*.

Why are they called relative pronouns ?

They are called relative pronouns because they relate to some person or thing already mentioned.

Which of them relate to persons ?

Who and *that* relate to persons.

And which of them refer to things ?

Which and *that* relate, or refer to things.

Give me an example on the word *who*.

That man is a friend *who* helps his neighbour :
who relates to the word *man*, at the beginning of the sentence.

Is the pronoun *who* singular or plural ?

Who is of both numbers, and is thus declined :

Nominative, Who.
 Possessive, Whose.
 Objective, Whom.

Who, whose, and whom, relate to persons.

Does the relative always refer to some word antecedent, or going before ?

No ; the relative pronoun, when used interrogatively, relates to a word or phrase not antecedent, but subsequent, or coming after ; as, *Whose* knife is this ?—It is Jane's. *Who* gave it to her ?—Her sister. Of *whom* was it purchased ?—Of Mr. Smith. *Whose* is sometimes used as the possessive case of *which*.

What is the meaning of *antecedent* ?

It means going before : *ante* is the Latin for before.

What is the meaning of *subsequent* ?

Something which follows.

Give me an example of the word *which*.

The bird *which* my uncle gave me died yesterday. The relative pronoun *which* relates to the word bird, at the beginning of the sentence. The pronoun *which* is applied to irrational animals and inanimate things ; as the tree *which* bears fruit ; the house *which* I saw to-day.

How is the word *that* applied ?

The relative pronoun *that* may be applied both to persons and things, to avoid the too frequent use of *who* and *which*.

Give me an example.

The little girl *who* lives with her aunt, and *that*

speaks Italian, is not so old as I am. 'The dog *which* belongs to Isabella, and *that* saved her life, is a faithful animal. The house *which* was burnt last night was uninhabited, or the house *that* was burnt, &c.

Describe the word *what*.

What is a compound relative, including both the antecedent and the relative; meaning, *that which*.

What is the meaning of *compound*?

The word compound means composed of two or more words.

What is the meaning of *relative*?

Having relation to some word, or belonging to some word already spoken of, or understood.

Give me an example.

This is *what* I wanted; or, this is the *thing which* I wanted: so that the word *what* may be said to be composed of the noun *thing* and the relative pronoun *which*.

What are *interrogative* pronouns?

Interrogative pronouns are those which are used in asking questions: they are, *who*, *which*, and *what*; as, *Who* is in the parlour? *Which* is your book? *What* are you writing? Interrogate is to ask questions.

What are *adjective* pronouns?

Adjective pronouns are of a mixed nature, partaking of the nature both of pronouns and *adjectives*. Adjective pronouns are so called because *they are added to nouns*

Adjective means added or joined.

How many kinds of adjective pronouns are there ?

There are four kinds of adjective-pronouns : the *possessive*, the *distributive*, and the *indefinite*.

Which are the *possessive* pronouns ?

The possessive pronouns are those which relate to possession or property.

How many are there ?

There are seven possessive pronouns ; namely, *my*, *thy*, *his*, *her*, *our*, *your*, *their*, and they generally precede a noun ; as, *my* book, *thy* mother, *his* sister, *her* work, *our* situation, *your* goodness, *their* brothers. *Its* may also be considered a possessive pronoun ; as, *its* beauty, when speaking of a flower or other objects. In the Holy Scriptures, *mine* and *thine* are more frequently used than *my* and *thy*, before a vowel or silent *h* ; as, *mine* hour, *mine* iniquities, *thine* anger.

Which are the *distributive* pronouns ?

The distributive are those which denote the persons or things that make up a number, used separately or singly. They are *each*, *every*, *either* ; as, *each* of my pupils ; *every* child is answerable for his conduct. I do not know *either* of them. *Each* relates to two or more persons or things, and signifies either of the two ; or one of a number, taken separately. *Every* relates to several persons or things. *Either* relates only to two persons or things taken separately, and means the one or the other ; therefore you cannot say *either* of the

three. *Neither* means, not either, not one nor the other.

Which are the *demonstrative* pronouns ?

The demonstrative pronouns, which point out particular objects, are *this* and *that* ; as, *this book* ; *that house*.

What is the plural of *this* ?

The plural of *this* is *these* ; singular, *this slate* ; plural, *these slates*.

What is the plural of *that* ?

Those is the plural of *that* : singular, *that peach* ; plural, *those peaches*.

What distinction is there between *this* and *that* ?

The pronoun *this* refers to the nearest person or thing ; and *that* to the most distant ; as, *This child* has more application than *that*. *This* also relates to the latter or last thing mentioned, and *that* to the former or first-mentioned ; as, Both wealth and poverty are temptations ; *that* tends to excite pride, *this* discontent : (*that* relates to wealth, and *this* to poverty.)

Are *former* and *latter* pronouns ?

No ; in the following example they are adjectives, used substantively :—"It was fortunate for Rome that Fabius continued in command with Minucius ; the coolness and decision of the *former* checked the impetuosity of the *latter*."

What are *indefinite* pronouns ?

The indefinite pronouns are used in a general or *indefinite manner*, without naming any particular

person or object. They are *each, every, one, none, other, another, either, some, any, all, such*.

Which of these pronouns admit of variation ?

Only the words *one* and *other* are varied. The word *one* has a possessive case, which it forms in the same manner as nouns, by an apostrophic *s* ; as, *one, one's*. This word sometimes means people at large, and also has a peculiar reference to the person who is speaking ; as, *One* is apt to think of *one's* self. It is often used in the plural number ; as, The great *ones* of the world ; The little *ones* are well.

Other is declined thus :—

| | Singular. | Plural. |
|--------------|-----------|----------|
| Nominative . | Other. | Others. |
| Possessive . | Other's. | Others'. |
| Objective . | Other. | Others. |

What is a *verb* ?

Whatever can be done is a verb.

Give me some examples.

I learn, or am learning ; she reads, or is reading ; they walk, or are walking.

How many kinds of verbs are there ?

Verbs are of three kinds ; *active, passive, and neuter*.

What is a verb *active* ?

A verb active expresses an action ; as, *I teach Mary*.

What do you mean by the word *agent* ?

An agent is a person who acts.

Which is the agent in the sentence, *I teach Mary* ?

The pronoun *I* is the agent, because it acts. *I* is also the nominative case, placed before the verb *teach*. *Mary* is the object acted upon, therefore *Mary* is the objective case, and comes after the verb *teach*.

Why is a verb active also called *transitive* ?

The verb active is called transitive because the action passes over to the object ; as, I *strike* the table. Transitive means having the power of passing.

What is a verb *passive* ?

A passive verb is the action passing from one object to another ; as, Ellen is *taught* by me ; The child is *beloved* by her.

How may you distinguish a verb *active* from a verb *passive* ?

A verb active has always an object to act upon ; it has usually a pronoun nominative before it, and a noun or pronoun in the objective case after it ; as, I *eat* bread ; she *teaches* me. A verb passive denotes suffering, or the receiving of an action, and not the doing of it ; as, He *is* oppressed ; they *are* suffering ; each sentence having a pronoun nominative, a verb, and a participle.

What is a verb *neuter* ?

A verb neuter expresses neither action nor suffering ; but being, or a state of being ; as, I *am*, I *rest*, he *sleeps*, she *stands*.

How may you know a verb neuter ?

A verb neuter does not admit of the objective case after it.

Why are neuter verbs called *intransitive* ?

Neuter verbs may be called intransitive, because the effect is confined to the subject, and does not pass over to any other object ; as, *I sleep, they sit.*

What is the meaning of the word *auxiliary* ?

The word auxiliary means helping.

What are auxiliary verbs ?

Auxiliary verbs are those which help to conjugate other verbs ; there are nine.

Which are the auxiliary verbs ?

The auxiliary verbs are, *do, be, have, shall, will, may, can,* with their variations ; and *let* and *must*, which have no variation, or which cannot be changed or altered to any other tense.

How are the auxiliary verbs conjugated ?

Some have a present and a past tense ; as, *To have, to be, to do.* Ex.:—*To have* : present, *I have* ; past, *I had.* Present of the verb *to be*, *I am* ; past, *I was.* Present, *I do* ; past, *I did.* Some auxiliary verbs have an absolute and conditional form ; as *shall, will, may, and can.* *Let* and *must* have only a present tense.

What do these verbs signify ?

To have, signifies possession ; *to be*, existence ; *to do*, action ; *shall* and *will*, what remains to be done, or the future ; *may*, possibility ; *can*, power ; *let*, permission ; and *must*, necessity.

Are the verbs *to have, to be, and to do*, always auxiliaries ?

No ; *to have, to be, and to do* are sometimes principal verbs. When they are followed by a

verb or a participle, they are auxiliaries, because they help the verb to form its moods or tenses ; as, *I have walked, I had walked ; I am pleased, I was pleased ; I do admit, I did admit.*

From what Latin word is *verb* derived ?

Verb is derived from *verbum*, the Latin for word.

What belong to verbs ?

To verbs belong *number, person, mood, and tense.*

How many *numbers* have verbs ?

Verbs have two numbers ; the *singular* and the *plural* ; singular, *I read, thou readest, he reads* ; plural, *we read, you read, they read.*

How many *persons* have verbs ?

Verbs have three persons in each number ; as, *I hear, thou hearest, he hears ; we hear, you hear, they hear.*

What is the meaning of *mood* ?

Mood or mode is derived from the Latin word *modus* ; which means, manner or model : therefore, in grammar, the mood is the form or state of the verb, showing its various modifications and variations

How many *moods* have verbs ?

Verbs have six moods ; the *indicative*, the *potential*, the *subjunctive*, the *imperative*, the *infinitive*, and the *participial*.

What is the *indicative* mood ?

The indicative mood simply declares, affirms, or denies ; as, *I dance, I do not dance.* The word *indicative* is derived from *indicate*, to show.

What is the *potential* mood ?

The potential mood implies possibility, liberty, will, power, or obligation ; as, *I may sing ; he can go ; he would ride ; they should play.* (From *potens*, the Latin for able.)

What is the *subjunctive* mood ?

The subjunctive mood implies a doubt or supposition, and must have a conjunction in the sentence, expressed or understood ; as, *If* you ride, I will walk ; I will persevere, *though* there are difficulties to encounter ; *Were* they employed, they would be happier ; that is, *If* they were employed.

What is the *imperative* mood ?

The imperative mood commands, exhorts, entreats, or permits ; as, *Learn* your lesson ; *Avoid* bad example ; *Listen* to my request ; *Pass* on before me.

What is the *infinitive* mood ?

The infinitive mood expresses a thing in a general and unlimited manner, without any distinction of number or person, and generally has the preposition *to* before it ; as, *to go ; to laugh ; to learn.*

What is the sign of the infinitive mood ?

The word *to* is the sign of the infinitive mood. Infinitive means unconfined.

What is the *participial* mood of a verb, or participle ?

The participle is so called because it partakes of the nature both of the verb and the adjective. It sometimes follows a verb ; as, *I am reading ;*

I have *walked*. Sometimes it is placed at the beginning of a sentence ; as, *Applauded* for his genius, he became careless.

How many participles are there ?

There are three participles : the present or active, the perfect or passive, and the compound perfect.

What is the *active* or *present* participle ?

The *present* or *active* participle is so called because it is being done at this present time ; as, I am *learning* ; You are *talking*. It signifies imperfect action, or an action begun and not ended ; as, I am *reading* a letter ; He was *writing* a book.

How may the present participle be known ?

The present or active participle always ends in *ing*.

What is the *perfect* participle ?

The perfect or passive participle signifies an action finished or completed ; as, I have *copied* this writing ; The letter is *finished*.

What is the *compound perfect* participle ?

The compound perfect consists of two participles, sometimes of three ; as, *Having written* ; *feeling fatigued* ; *having been requested*.

What is the distinction between the perfect participle and the passive participle ?

When a participle is joined to the verb to have, it is perfect ; but when joined to the verb to be, it is passive.

From what is the word *participle* derived ?

From the Latin pars, a part, and capio, I take.

What is the meaning of the word *tense* ?

Tense relates to time. The word tense is derived from the French *temps*, and the Latin *tempus*, time.

How is *time* distinguished ?

Time is *present*, *past*, and *future* ; but grammarians, to mark it more accurately, make it to consist of six variations ; namely, the present ; the present perfect ; the past ; the past perfect ; the future ; and the future perfect.

Explain the *present tense*.

The present tense represents what is going on at the present time, or whatever happens generally ; as, *I write* ; *I am teaching* ; *I do improve*. The signs are, *do*, *am*, and *have*.

What is the *present perfect* ?

The present perfect represents an action or event completed at a point of time including the present ; as, *I have written* my exercise ; She *has improved* much since she *has been* in France.

Explain the *past tense*.

The past tense represents an action as past ; as, *I wrote* ; *I was reading* ; *I did apply*. *Did*, *was*, and *had*, are its signs.

What is the *past perfect* ?

The past perfect represents an action as past and finished before some other event happened ; as, *I had written* my theme before she came to school.

What is the *future tense* ?

The future tense refers to a future time ; as, The sun *will* set at eight o'clock ; I *shall* go to

London to-morrow. The signs of the future tense are *shall* and *will*.

Explain the *future perfect*.

The future perfect intimates that an action will be completed at or before the time of another future action or event ; as, I *shall have* finished by the time you return ; she *will have* written her French exercise before our master arrives.

What do you mean by the *conjugation* of a verb ?

The conjugation of a verb is the arrangement of its several numbers, persons, moods, and tenses.

Can you tell me the difference between a *regular* and an *irregular* verb ?

A regular verb may be known by adding *ed* to the past tense and to the past participle ; or only *d*, when the verb ends in *e* ; as, present tense, I favour ; past tense, I favoured ; participle past, favoured. Present, I arrive ; past, I arrived : past participle, arrived.

How may you know an irregular verb ?

An irregular verb does *not* form its past tense and past participle by the addition of *d* or *ed* to the infinitive ; as,

| <i>Present</i> | <i>Past.</i> | <i>Participle Past.</i> |
|----------------|--------------|-------------------------|
| I begin. | I began. | Begun. |
| I know. | I knew. | Known. |

Irregular verbs are of various kinds : some have the present, the past tense, and past participle the same ; as,

| <i>Present.</i> | <i>Past.</i> | <i>Participle Past.</i> |
|-----------------|--------------|-------------------------|
| Cost. | Cost. | Cost. |
| Put. | Put. | Put. |

Some have the past tense and participle just the same.

| <i>Present.</i> | <i>Past.</i> | <i>Participle Past.</i> |
|-----------------|--------------|-------------------------|
| Abide. | Abode. | Abode. |
| Sell. | Sold. | Sold. |

Others have *not* the past tense and participle past alike ; as,

| <i>Present.</i> | <i>Past.</i> | <i>Participle Past.</i> |
|-----------------|--------------|-------------------------|
| Arise. | Arose. | Arisen. |
| Blow. | Blew. | Blown. |

Some verbs become irregular by contraction ; as, feed, *fed* ; leave, *left* ; others, by the termination *en* ; as, fall, fell, fallen ; *ought* or *aught* ; as, buy, *bought* ; teach, *taught*, &c. &c.

What are *defective* verbs ?

Defective verbs are those which are used only in some of the moods and tenses ; as,

| <i>Present.</i> | <i>Past.</i> | <i>Participle Past.</i> |
|-----------------|--------------|-------------------------|
| Can. | Could. | — |
| May. | Might. | — |
| Shall. | Should. | — |
| Will. | Would. | — |
| Must. | Must. | — |
| Ought. | Ought. | — |
| — | Quoth. | — |

Conjugation of the neuter verb, TO BE, as a principal verb.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

| <i>Singular.</i> | <i>Plural.</i> |
|-------------------------------------|-------------------|
| 1. <i>Pers.</i> I am. | 1. We are. |
| 2. <i>Pers.</i> Thou art. | 2. Ye or you are. |
| 3. <i>Pers.</i> He, she, or it, is. | 3. They are. |

Present Perfect.

| | |
|-------------------------|--------------------|
| 1. I have been. | 1. We have been. |
| 2. Thou hast been. | 2. You have been. |
| 3. He has or hath been. | 3. They have been. |

Past, or Imperfect Tense.

Singular.

1. I was.
2. Thou wast.
3. He was.

Plural.

1. We were.
2. You were.
3. They were.

Past Perfect, or Pluperfect Tense.

1. I had been.
2. Thou hadst been.
3. He had been.

1. We had been.
2. You had been.
3. They had been.

First Future Tense.

1. I shall *or* will be.
2. Thou shalt *or* wilt be.
3. He shall *or* will be.

1. We shall *or* will be.
2. You shall *or* will be.
3. They shall *or* will be.

Future Perfect, or Second Future Tense.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. I shall <i>or</i> will have been. | 1. We shall <i>or</i> will have been. |
| 2. Thou shalt <i>or</i> wilt have been. | 2. You shall <i>or</i> will have been. |
| 3. He shall <i>or</i> will have been. | 3. They shall <i>or</i> will have been. |

Potential Mood.

Present Tense.

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. I may <i>or</i> can be. | 1. We may <i>or</i> can be. |
| 2. Thou mayst <i>or</i> canst be. | 2. You may <i>or</i> can be. |
| 3. He may <i>or</i> can be. | 3. They may <i>or</i> can be. |

Present Perfect.

- | | |
|--|--------------------------------------|
| 1. I may <i>or</i> can have been. | 1. We may <i>or</i> can have been. |
| 2. Thou mayst <i>or</i> canst have been. | 2. You may <i>or</i> can have been. |
| 3. He may <i>or</i> can have been. | 3. They may <i>or</i> can have been. |

Past, or Imperfect Tense.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. I might, could, would, <i>or</i> should be. | 1. We might, could, would, <i>or</i> should be. |
| 2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, <i>or</i> shouldst be. | 2. You might, could, would, <i>or</i> should be. |
| 3. He might, could, would, <i>or</i> should be. | 3. They might, could, would, <i>or</i> should be. |

Past Perfect, or Pluperfect.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. I might, &c. have been. | 1. We might, &c. have been. |
| 2. Thou mightst, &c. have been. | 2. You might, &c. have been. |
| 3. He might, &c. have been. | 3. They might, &c. have been. |

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Tense.

| Singular. | Plural. |
|---------------------------|----------------|
| 1. If I be. | 1. If we be. |
| 2. If thou be. | 2. If you be. |
| 3. If he, she, or it, be. | 3. If they be. |

Imperfect, or Past.

| | |
|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. Were I, or if I were. | 1. Were we, or if we were. |
| 2. Wert thou, or if thou wert. | 2. Were you, or if you were. |
| 3. Were he, or if he were. | 3. Were they, or if they were. |

In some grammars the Imperative Mood is printed as follows :—

Imperative Mood.

| | |
|----------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. Let me be. | 1. Let us be. |
| 2. Be thou, or do thou be. | 2. Be ye or you, or do ye be. |
| 3. Let him or her be. | 3. Let them be. |

But strictly speaking, the imperative mood cannot have three persons ; as a command can only be addressed to the second person.

Imperative Mood.

| | |
|--------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 2. Be, be thou, or do thou be. | 2. Be, be you, or do you be. |
|--------------------------------|------------------------------|

Infinitive Mood.

| | |
|------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| <i>Present.</i> To be. | <i>Present Perfect.</i> To have been. |
|------------------------|---------------------------------------|

Participles.

| | |
|--------------------------------------|-----------------------|
| <i>Present.</i> Being. | <i>Perfect.</i> Been. |
| <i>Compound Perfect.</i> Having been | |

What observations have you to make respecting the verb *To be* ?

The irregular verb *To be* is called *neuter*, when thus conjugated ; and it could not be conjugated through all the moods and tenses without the help of the verb *To have* ; but it is an *auxiliary* when used to conjugate other verbs.

The conjugation of an active verb is called the *active voice* ; and that of a passive verb the *passive voice*.

The auxiliary and active verb *To have*, is conjugated in the following manner.

TO HAVE.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

| Singular. | Plural. |
|---|--------------------|
| 1. <i>Pers.</i> I have. | 1. We have. |
| 2. <i>Pers.</i> Thou hast. | 2. Ye or you have. |
| 3. <i>Pers.</i> He, she, or it, hath or has. | 3. They have. |

Present Perfect.

| | |
|-------------------|-------------------|
| 1. I have had. | 1. We have had. |
| 2. Thou hast had. | 2. You have had. |
| 3. He has had. | 3. They have had. |

Past Tense, or Imperfect.

| | |
|------------------------|--------------|
| 1. I had. | 1. We had. |
| 2. Thou hadst. | 2. You had. |
| 3. He, she, or it had. | 3. They had. |

Past Perfect, or Pluperfect Tense.

| | |
|--------------------|------------------|
| 1. I had had. | 1. We had had. |
| 2. Thou hadst had. | 2. You had had. |
| 3. He had had. | 3. They had had. |

First Future Tense.

| | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. I shall or will have. | 1. We shall or will have. |
| 2. Thou shalt or wilt have. | 2. You shall or will have. |
| 3. He shall or will have. | 3. They shall or will have. |

Future Perfect, or Second Future Tense.

| | |
|------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. I shall have had. | 1. We shall have had. |
| 2. Thou wilt have had. | 2. You will have had. |
| 3. He will have had. | 3. They will have had. |

Imperative Mood.

| | |
|---|--|
| 2. <i>Have</i> , have thou, or do thou have. | 2. Have, have ye, or do ye or you have. |
|---|--|

Potential Mood.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I may *or* can have.
2. Thou mayst *or* canst have.
3. He may *or* can have.

Plural.

1. We may *or* can have.
2. You may *or* can have.
3. They may *or* can have.

Present Perfect.

- | | |
|---|-------------------------------------|
| 1. I may <i>or</i> can have had. | 1. We may <i>or</i> can have had. |
| 2. Thou mayst <i>or</i> canst have had. | 2. You may <i>or</i> can have had. |
| 3. He may <i>or</i> can have had. | 3. They may <i>or</i> can have had. |

Past Tense, or Imperfect.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. I might, could, would, <i>or</i> should have. | 1. We might, could, would, <i>or</i> should have. |
| 2. Thou mightst, couldst, wouldst, <i>or</i> shouldst have. | 2. You might, could, would, <i>or</i> should have. |
| 3. He might, could, would, <i>or</i> should have. | 3. They might, could, would, <i>or</i> should have. |

Past Perfect, or Pluperfect.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. I might, could, would, <i>or</i> should have had. | 1. We might, could, would, <i>or</i> should have had. |
| 2. Thou mightst, couldst, &c. have had. | 2. You might, could, &c. have had. |
| 3. He might, &c. have had. | 3. They might, &c. have had, |

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Tense.

- | | |
|------------------|------------------|
| 1. If I have. | 1. If we have. |
| 2. If thou have. | 2. If you have. |
| 3. If he have. | 3. If they have. |

Past Tense, or Imperfect.

- | | |
|-------------------|-----------------|
| 1. If I had. | 1. If we had. |
| 2. If thou hadst. | 2. If you had. |
| 3. If he had. | 3. If they had. |

Infinitive Mood.

Present. To have.

Present Perfect. To have had.

Participles.

| | | | |
|----------------------------|-------------|-----------------|------|
| <i>Present, or Active.</i> | Having. | <i>Perfect.</i> | Had. |
| <i>Compound Perfect.</i> | Having had. | | |

What is the distinction between a *simple* and a *compound* tense ?

Those tenses are called simple which are formed of the principal, without the aid of an auxiliary ; as, I *play*, I *played*. The compound tenses are formed with the help of an auxiliary ; as, I *have played*, I *had played*, &c.

A regular *active* verb is conjugated as follows

TO LOVE.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

| Singular. | Plural. |
|------------------------------------|---------------|
| 1. I love. | 1. We love. |
| 2. Thou lovest. | 2. You love. |
| 3. He, she, or it loveth or loves. | 3. They love. |

Present Perfect.

| | |
|--------------------------|---------------------|
| 1. I have loved. | 1. We have loved. |
| 2. Thou hast loved. | 2. You have loved. |
| 3. He has or hath loved. | 3. They have loved. |

Past Tense, or Imperfect.

| | |
|------------------|----------------|
| 1. I loved. | 1. We loved. |
| 2. Thou lovedst. | 2. You loved. |
| 3. He loved. | 3. They loved. |

Past Perfect, or Pluperfect.

| | |
|----------------------|--------------------|
| 1. I had loved. | 1. We had loved. |
| 2. Thou hadst loved. | 2. You had loved. |
| 3. He had loved. | 3. They had loved. |

First Future Tense.

| | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. I shall or will love. | 1. We shall or will love. |
| 2. Thou shalt or wilt love. | 2. You shall or will love. |
| 3. He shall or will love. | 3. They shall or will love. |

Future Perfect, or Second Future.

| | |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. I shall or will have loved. | 1. We shall or will have loved. |
| 2. Thou shalt or wilt have loved. | 2. You shall or will have loved. |
| 3. He shall or will have loved. | 3. They shall or will have loved. |

ETYMOLOGY.

Potential Mood.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I may *or* can love.
2. Thou mayst *or* canst love.
3. He may *or* can love.

Plural.

1. We may *or* can love.
2. You may *or* can love.
3. They may *or* can love.

Present Perfect.

1. I may have loved.
2. Thou mayst have loved.
3. He may have loved.

1. We may have loved.
2. You may have loved.
3. They may have loved.

Past Tense, or Imperfect.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. I might, could, would, <i>or</i> should love. | 1. We might, could, would, <i>o</i> should love. |
| 2. Thou mightst love. | 2. You might love. |
| 3. He might love. | 3. They might love. |

Past Perfect, or Pluperfect Tense.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. I might have loved. | 1. We might have loved. |
| 2. Thou mightst have loved. | 2. You might have loved. |
| 3. He might have loved. | 3. They might have loved. |

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Tense.

- | | |
|------------------|------------------|
| 1. If I love. | 1. If we love. |
| 2. If thou love. | 2. If you love. |
| 3. If he love. | 3. If they love. |

Imperative Mood.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 2. Love, love thou, <i>or</i> do thou love. | 2. Love, love you, <i>or</i> do you love. |
|--|--|

Infinitive Mood.

Present. To love.

Perfect. To have loved.

Participles.

Present. Loving.

Perfect, or Past. Loved.

Compound Perfect. Having loved.

How is a *passive* verb conjugated?

A passive verb is conjugated by adding the perfect participle to the auxiliary verb *To be*, through all its changes of number, person, mood, and tense.

TO BE LOVED.

Indicative Mood.

Present Tense.

| Singular. | Plural. |
|------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. I am loved. | 1. We are loved. |
| 2. Thou art loved. | 2. Ye or you are loved. |
| 3. He or she is loved. | 3. They are loved. |

Present Perfect Tense.

| | |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. I have been loved. | 1. We have been loved. |
| 2. Thou hast been loved. | 2. Ye or you have been loved. |
| 3. He hath or has been loved. | 3. They have been loved. |

Past, or Imperfect Tense.

| | |
|---------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. I was loved. | 1. We were loved. |
| 2. Thou wast loved. | 2. Ye or you were loved. |
| 3. He was loved. | 3. They were loved. |

Past Perfect, or Pluperfect Tense.

| | |
|---------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. I had been loved. | 1. We had been loved. |
| 2. Thou hadst been loved. | 2. Ye or you had been loved. |
| 3. He had been loved. | 3. They had been loved. |

First Future Tense.

| | |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. I shall or will be loved. | 1. We shall or will be loved. |
| 2. Thou shalt or wilt be loved. | 2. You shall or will be loved. |
| 3. He shall or will be loved. | 3. They shall or will be loved. |

Future Perfect, or Second Future Tense.

| | |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. I shall have been loved. | 1. We shall have been loved. |
| 2. Thou wilt have been loved. | 2. You will have been loved. |
| 3. He will have been loved. | 3. They will have been loved. |

Potential Mood.

Present Tense.

| | |
|----------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. I may or can be loved. | 1. We may or can be loved. |
| 2. Thou mayst or canst be loved. | 2. You may or can be loved. |
| 3. He may or can be loved. | 3. They may or can be loved. |

Present Perfect Tense.

- | Singular. | Plural. |
|--|--|
| 1. I may <i>or</i> can have been loved. | 1. We may <i>or</i> can have been loved. |
| 2. Thou mayst <i>or</i> canst have been loved. | 2. You may <i>or</i> can have been loved. |
| 3. He may <i>or</i> can have been loved. | 3. They may <i>or</i> can have been loved. |

Past, or Imperfect Tense.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. I might, could, would, <i>or</i> should be loved. | 1. We might, could, would, <i>or</i> should be loved. |
| 2. Thou mightst, couldst, &c. be loved. | 2. You might, could, would, &c. be loved. |
| 3. He might, could, would, &c. be loved. | 3. They might, could, would, &c. be loved. |

Past Perfect, or Pluperfect Tense.

- | | |
|---|-------------------------------------|
| 1. I might, could, &c. have been loved. | 1. We might, &c. have been loved. |
| 2. Thou mightst, &c. have been loved. | 2. You might, &c. have been loved. |
| 3. He might, &c. have been loved. | 3. They might, &c. have been loved. |

Subjunctive Mood.

Present Tense.

- | | |
|----------------------|----------------------|
| 1. If I be loved. | 1. If we be loved. |
| 2. If thou be loved. | 2. If you be loved. |
| 3. If he be loved. | 3. If they be loved. |

Past, or Imperfect Tense.

- | | |
|------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. If I were loved. | 1. If we were loved. |
| 2. If thou wert loved. | 2. If you were loved. |
| 3. If he were loved. | 3. If they were loved. |

Imperative Mood.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. Let me be loved. | 1. Let us be loved. |
| 2. Be thou loved, <i>or</i> do thou be loved. | 2. Be you loved, <i>or</i> do ye be loved. |
| 3. Let him be loved. | 3. Let them be loved. |

Infinitive Mood.

- Present Tense.* To be loved. *Perfect.* To have been loved.

Participles.

- Present.* Being loved. *Perfect, or Passive.* Loved.
Compound Perfect. Having been loved.

The following auxiliary verbs are chiefly of use in conjugating the principal verbs.

To Have.

Present Tense, Have. Past, or Imperfect, Had.

To Be.

Present Tense, Am. Past, or Imperfect, Was.

Shall.

Present Tense, Shall. Past, or Imperfect, Should.

Will.

Present Tense, Will. Past, or Imperfect, Would.

May.

Present Tense, May. Past, or Imperfect, Might.

Can.

Present Tense, Can. Past, or Imperfect, Could.

To Do.

Present Tense, Do. Past, or Imperfect, Did.

Are *shall* and *will* synonymous terms ?

No ; the word *shall*, in the first person, merely foretells ; and in the second and third persons, promises, commands, or threatens ; as, I *shall* go out ; We *shall* see you soon ; Thou *shalt*, or you *shall* have all that you desire ; They *shall* give an account of their proceedings. *Will*, in the first person singular and plural, implies resolution and promising ; and in the second and third, only foretells ; as, I *will* reward the diligent, and *will* punish the idle ; We *will* think of your kindness, and be grateful ; Thou *wilt*, or you *will*, repent of *such rashness* ; He and they *will* spend a pleasant

day. Lindley Murray, in one of his notes on the verbs, observes:—"The foreigner, who, as it is said, fell into the Thames, and cried out, 'I *will* be drowned; nobody *shall* help me!' made a sad mis-application of these auxiliaries."

What is the meaning of the word *synonymous*?

It means expressing the same thing by different words.

A LIST OF SOME OF THE IRREGULAR VERBS.

[*Note*.—Those verbs which have the letter (*r*) are regular as well as irregular; as, awoke or awaked.]

| <i>Present.</i> | <i>Past, or Imperfect.</i> | <i>Perfect, or Passive Participle.</i> |
|-------------------------|--------------------------------|--|
| Awake, | awoke,(<i>r</i>) | awaked. |
| Bear, <i>to carry</i> , | bore, | borne. |
| Beat, | beat, | beaten <i>or</i> beat. |
| Begin, | began, | begun. |
| Bend, | bent, | bent. |
| Bereave, | bereft,(<i>r</i>) | bereft <i>or</i> bereaved. |
| Break, | broke, | broken. |
| Choose. | chose, | chosen. |
| Clothe, | clothed, | clad.(<i>r</i>) |
| Come, | came, | comè. |
| Deal, | dealt, | dealt. |
| Dig, | dug,(<i>r</i>) | dug.(<i>r</i>) |
| Do, | did, | done. |
| Draw, | drew, | drawn. |
| Drink, | drank, | drunk. |
| Eat, | eat <i>or</i> ate, | eaten. |
| Fall, | fell, | fallen. |
| Fly, | flew, | flown. |
| Forsake, | forsook, | forsaken. |
| Give, | gave, | given. |
| Go, | went, | gone. |
| Hurt, | hurt, | hurt. |
| Know, | knew, | known. |
| Lead, | led, | led. |
| Mow, | mowed, | mown.(<i>r</i>) |
| Pay, | paid, | paid. |
| Ring, | rung <i>or</i> rang, | rung. |

| <i>Present.</i> | <i>Past, or Imperfect.</i> | <i>Perfect, or Passive Participle.</i> |
|----------------------------|--------------------------------|--|
| Sow, <i>to sow seed,</i> | sowed, | sown.(r) |
| Sew, <i>with a needle,</i> | sewed, | sewed. |
| Speak, | spoke, | spoken. |
| Swim, | swum, swam, | swum. |
| Take, | took, | taken. |
| Teach, | taught, | taught. |
| Think, | thought, | thought. |
| Throw, | threw, | thrown. |
| Tread, | trod, | trodden. |
| Wear, | wore, | worn. |
| Weave, | wove, | woven. |
| Win, | won, | won. |
| Wind, | wound, | wound. |
| Work, | wrought,(r) | wrought or worked. |
| Write, | wrote, | written. |

What is an *adverb*?

An adverb is a word joined to a verb, an adjective, or to another adverb, with which it is connected; as, he behaves *well*; showing the manner in which he behaves:—A *very* kind mother; she repeats her lessons *very correctly*?

Do adverbs admit of variation?

A few of them admit of variation, to express the degrees of comparison; as, *soon, sooner, soonest; often, oftener, oftenest*. Those ending in *ly*, are compared by *more* and *most*; as, nobly, *more nobly, most nobly*.

How are adverbs distinguished?

Adverbs may be known by asking the questions, *How? how much? when? or, where? as, How does she read? the answer is, Correctly; How much did he give? the answer is, He gave liberally; When will you go? the answer is, To-morrow; Where shall I see you? the answer may be, Here*

or *there*. Adverbs also shorten discourse ; as, *There*, for in that place ; He acted *wisely* ; for, he acted in a wise manner.

How may adverbs be classed ?

They are very numerous : there are adverbs of *number, order, place, time, quantity, manner or quality, doubt, affirmation, negation, interrogation, and comparison*.

1. Of *number* ; as, Once, twice, thrice, &c.

2. Of *order* ; as, First, secondly, thirdly, &c. ; lastly, finally.

3. Of *place* ; as, Here, there, where, elsewhere, anywhere, somewhere, nowhere, herein, whither, hither, thither, upward, downward, forward, backward, whence, hence, thence, &c.

4. Of *time*. Of time present ; as, Now, to-day, &c.

Is *to-day* always an adverb ?

No : To-day's lesson is more difficult than yesterday's. In this sentence, to-day and yesterday are substantives, because they make sense of themselves ; but in the sentence, He came to town *yesterday*, and goes into the country again *to-day*, they are adverbs of time, and answer to the question *when*.

Of time *past* ; as, Already, before, lately, yesterday, heretofore, hitherto, long since, long ago, &c.

Of the *future* ; as, To-morrow, not yet, hereafter, henceforth, henceforward, by and by, instantly, presently, immediately, straightways, &c.

Of *time indefinite* ; as, Oft, often, oftentimes,

oftentimes, sometimes, soon, seldom, daily, weekly, monthly, yearly, always, when, then, ever, never, again, &c.

5. Of *quantity* ; as, Much, little, sufficiently, how much, how great, enough, abundantly, &c.

6. Of *manner* or *quality* ; as, Wisely, foolishly, justly, quickly, &c. Adverbs of quality are generally formed by adding *ly* to an adjective or participle, or by changing *le* into *ly* ; as, bad, badly ; able, ably, &c.

7. Of *doubt* ; as, Perhaps, peradventure, possibly, perchance.

8. Of *affirmation* ; as, Verily, truly, undoubtedly, doubtless, certainly, yea, yes, surely, indeed, really, &c.

9. Of *negation* ; as, Nay, no, not, by no means, not at all, &c.

10. Of *interrogation* ; as, How, why, wherefore, whether, &c.

11. Of *comparison* ; as, More, most, better, best, worse, worst, less, least, very, almost, alike.

Give me some examples of adverbs of *manner* or *quality*.

She copies *accurately* ; accurately is the adverb, and shows the manner of the verb, or the manner in which she copies ; He studies *diligently* ; diligently is the adverb, and shows the manner in which he studies.

What is a *preposition* ?

A preposition is a word which expresses the relation that nouns, pronouns, or participles bear to

some other word in a sentence ; as, She rode *from* London *to* Greenwich ; *from*, is the first preposition in the sentence, and shows the relation between the pronoun she and London ; *to*, is the second, and shows the relation between London and Greenwich ; and if the prepositions were to be omitted the sentence would be incomplete.

What case do prepositions govern ?

Prepositions always govern the objective case ; as, *from* her, *to* him, *with* them. They are supported *by* him ; *him*, the objective case, is governed by the preposition *by*, without which the sentence would be unintelligible

Which are the principal prepositions ?

The principal prepositions are, Of, to, for, by, with, in, into, within, without, over, under, through, above, below, between, beneath, from, beyond, at, near, up, down, before, behind, off, on or upon, among, after, about, against.

What is a *conjunction* ?

A conjunction is a part of speech chiefly used to connect words and sentences ; as, He *and* I are going ; You are cheerful, *because* you do your duty. *And* and *because* are the conjunctions.

How many kinds of conjunctions are there ?

There are two kinds of conjunctions, the *copulative* and the *disjunctive*.

Of what use are the copulative conjunctions ?

The copulative conjunctions connect words, or continue a sentence ; as, He *and* his sister reside in the country ; I will walk, *if* you will accompany

me ; They are accomplished, *because* they are industrious and attentive. The principal are : And, both, if, that, for, since, so that, then, because, therefore, wherefore.

Which are the disjunctive conjunctions ?

The disjunctive conjunctions are, But, or, nor, as, than, lest, though, unless, either, neither, yet, notwithstanding. They are so called, because they not only continue the sentence, but express opposition of meaning ; as, *Though* he was sent to school, *yet* he remained ignorant ; They brought her to see me, *but* they went away without her. Conjunction means joining, and disjunction separation.

Of what use are *interjections* ?

Interjections are words used to express some passion or emotion of the mind ; as, *Oh !* I have lost my benefactor ; *Alas !* I fear she will not recover. *O ! Oh ! ah ! alas !* express grief. *Lo ! behold ! hark !* call for attention. *Welcome ! hail ! all hail !* express welcome. There are some expressive of aversion, others of disgust : they are all followed by a note of exclamation.

CONVERSATION

ON THE SECOND PART OF GRAMMAR, CALLED ETYMOLOGY.

TEACHER.—I wish to have a little conversation with you on the different parts of speech. Can you tell me the difference between the indefinite and *definite article* ?

PUPIL.—Yes ; the indefinite article *a* or *an* is placed before a noun, but does not specify any particular object.

T.—Very well ; but that is not a sufficient explanation.

P.—I should have begun by saying, that there are two articles, the indefinite and the definite. When I use the indefinite article, I do not mean to point out any particular thing. I say sometimes, Lend me *a* book ; that means, any book ; but when I wish for some particular book, I make use of the article *the*. *The* is called the definite article, because it defines or points out some particular person or thing. With regard to the indefinite article *a* or *an* : *a* is always placed before words beginning with a consonant, and *an* before words beginning with a vowel or *h* mute, or not aspirated.

T.—How many kinds of nouns or substantives are there ?

P.—Nouns or substantives are either common or proper : Chair, table, child, man, lady, tree, &c., are common ; but London, Paris, York, Greenwich, Mary, Alfred, the Thames, the Clyde, Snowdon, Loch Lomond, &c., are proper, because they are the names of persons and places.

T.—How can you distinguish an adjective from the other parts of speech ?

P.—An adjective may be known by placing a noun after it :—I have several books, some *old* and some *new* ; some *handsome*, (I mean the binding,) others *plain* ; therefore, by placing one of these

adjectives before the word book, I describe some particular book or books. There are also adjectives of number ; as *one, two, three, &c. ; first, second, &c.*

T.—What is a *pronoun* ?

P.—We make use of pronouns to avoid the repetition of names. When speaking of myself, I use, *I* or *me* ; when speaking to another person, I use, *thou, thee, you, or ye*, according to the grammar ; but, in conversation, we only make use of the pronoun *you*. *He* and *she*, we use when speaking of a person ; also *him* and *her*. The plural of *I* is *we* ; the plural of *me* is *us* ; the plural of *thou* and *thee*, is *ye* or *you* ; the plural of *he* and *him*, is *they* and *them* ; the plural of *she, her, and it*, is *they* and *them*. All these pronouns being used instead of nouns.

T.—You have only mentioned the personal pronouns.

P.—There are also pronouns which are called relative, because they relate to some person or thing already mentioned ; at least this is generally the case ; as, The child is happy *who* is obedient : *who* relates to the child, and is always made use of for persons. *Which* is also a relative pronoun, and relates to irrational animals and things ; as, The dog *which* my brother gave me ; The tree *which* is covered with blossoms. There is also another relative pronoun, *that*, which is used for both persons and animals or things, to avoid the too frequent repetition of *who* and *which*. *Who* is nominative,

whose is possessive, and *whom* is objective. As I think I am quite conversant with the adjective pronouns, and other pronouns; if you will allow me I will pass them over, and go on to the verbs.

T.—I have not the least objection, and now give me your definition of a *verb*.

P.—Whatever can be *done* is a verb. It has generally a personal pronoun before it; or it may be known by prefixing the preposition *to*; as, *To laugh*, I *laugh*; *To dance*, you *dance*; *To play*, he *plays*.

T.—How many kinds of verbs are there?

P.—Three kinds; active, passive, and neuter. There are also regular, irregular, and defective verbs.

T.—I will not trouble you to give any further explanation, as I believe you are thoroughly acquainted with that part of grammar. Now we will speak of *adverbs*.

P.—An adverb is rather more difficult to explain; but I will endeavour to do so. First, then, it is called an adverb because added or joined to a verb. Example: she sings *sweetly*; *sweetly* comes after the verb *sings*, and shows the manner in which she sings. Adverbs are sometimes formed by adding *ly* to adjectives; as in the foregoing example, *sweet* being an adjective, and *sweetly*, an adverb. This kind of adverb shows the manner in which any action is performed. Adverbs are sometimes joined to adjectives, and sometimes to other adverbs; as, A *very* worthy woman; the *adverb*

very being placed before the adjective *worthy* ; she copies *very correctly* ; here are two adverbs placed together ; *very* and *correctly*. There are adverbs of place ; as, here, there. Of time ; as, once, lastly. Of affirmation ; as, yes. Of negation ; as, no, not. Adverbs of manner ; as, so, thus. Of order ; as, secondly, thirdly, before, behind, after, afterwards. Of quantity ; as, how much, enough. Of comparison ; as, more, less, likewise. Of interrogation ; as, when ? why ? how ? where ? Of doubt ; as, perhaps, very likely.

T.—Very well. And, now, can you tell me why a preposition is so called ?

P.—Prepositions, which are indeclinable, are so called from the Latin verb *præponere*, which signifies to place before, because they are placed before the word which they govern. They serve to denote the several relations of nouns and pronouns with one another. A preposition may be known by its being followed by a pronoun or noun in the objective case ; as, Give this book *to* him. *To* is the preposition, and shows the relation between *book* and *him*. This fruit is *for* them ; *for* is the preposition. The inkstand is *upon* the table ; *upon* is the preposition, showing the relation between inkstand and table. Spread the butter *on* the roll ; *on* is the preposition, placed before the roll, which is in the objective case. There are many other prepositions which come after a verb, and alter its signification ; as, To come *out* or *in* ; to go *for* ; *to go upon*, &c. I must confess that I sometimes

find it difficult to distinguish adverbs from prepositions.

T.—It is rather difficult ; but you must endeavour to remember that a preposition will always admit after it either a noun or a pronoun in the objective case. Not so an adverb. We will take the word *on* as an example. Go *on* ; which means, advance. Here the word *on* is an adverb ; can you tell me why ?

P.—Because it does not admit a noun or pronoun after it.

T.—Very well. But, Go *on* the lawn ; *on* is a preposition in this sentence, showing the relation between the person spoken to and the lawn. Go *without* me. In this phrase *without* is a preposition, having the pronoun objective *me* after it. She is *without* ; that is, outside the house. Here *without* is an adverb, denoting place, or the situation in which a person is placed. Remember that prepositions point out a relation between nouns and pronouns, and that adverbs are merely added to verbs. And now we will speak of *conjunctions*.

P.—They are easily explained. Conjunctions, as the word implies, join words, or parts of sentences together. There are two kinds, the conjunctive and the disjunctive. The conjunctive or copulative conjunction joins words or parts of sentences ; as, You *and* I ; We are going to London, *and* shall return this evening ; I will learn music, *if* you will teach me ; You are cheerful, *because* you are never idle. The conjunction disjunctive, although it connects *and* continues the sentence, at the same time ex-

presses 'opposition of meaning ; as, Her mother came with her, *but* went away without her ; 'Though I frequently admonished him, *yet* he did not reform. I know all the conjunctions, both copulative and disjunctive, and will repeat them if you wish it.

T.—Do so ; it will exercise your memory.

P.—The copulative conjunctions are,—And, that, both, for, therefore, if, then, since, because, wherefore. The disjunctive are,—But, than, though, either, or, as, unless, neither, nor, lest, yet, notwithstanding, and a few others.

T.—Give me a few examples of *interjections*.

P.—*Interjections* express some passion or emotion of the mind ; as, Oh ! ah ! alas ! behold ! hail ! &c. &c.

T.—I had almost forgotten to mention participles.

P.—The participle is so called from its participating or partaking of the nature of a verb, and also of an adjective. There are three : the present or active, the perfect or passive, and the compound perfect. The present participle always ends in *ing*. The past in *ed* or *d*, if the verb is regular, but not so if the verb is irregular. The compound participle is composed of two participles ; the present, ending in *ing*, and the past participle.

T.—I am pleased with your attention, and will now take my leave.

P.—I had a great dislike to grammar once ; but *now that* I understand it, I find no difficulty in *committing it to memory*. Good evening, Miss H.

SYNTAX.

PART III.

What is *syntax* ?

Syntax treats of the agreement and arrangement of words in a sentence.

What is a sentence ?

A sentence consists of words forming a complete sense.

There are two kinds of sentences, simple and compound.

Explain the difference.

A simple sentence has only one subject, and one finite verb ; as, *Time is precious*. A compound sentence consists of two or more sentences ; as, *Time, which is limited, should be improved ; Idleness occasions poverty, crime, and unhappiness*.

What are *finite verbs* ?

Finite verbs are those to which number and person belong. Verbs in the infinitive mood have neither number nor person.

How many kinds of *simple sentences* are there ?

There are three kinds of simple sentences ; the *explicative* or *explaining* ; the *interrogative* or *questioning* ; and the *imperative* or *commanding*, *exhorting* and *entreating*.

Explain them.

An explicative sentence is when a thing is said to be, or not to be ; to do, or not to do ; to suffer,

or not to suffer ; as, *I read* ; *She is respected* ; *He is not pleased*. In an interrogative sentence, the nominative case follows the principal verb, or the auxiliary : Is *it* he ? Did your sister follow *my* advice ?

In an imperative sentence, the nominative case likewise follows the verb or the auxiliary ; as, Go, idle *child* ! Do *thou* attend ; unless the verb *let* be used ; as, *Let* us be going.

What is a *phrase* ?

A phrase is two or more words, making sometimes a part, and sometimes a whole sentence.

What are the principal parts of a simple sentence ?

The principal parts of a simple sentence are, the *subject* or nominative, the *attribute* or verb, and the *object*. The subject is that of which something is affirmed or denied ; the attribute is the verb affirming or denying ; and the object is the thing affected by such affirmation or denial ; as, *The people honour the queen* : *people* is the subject, *honour* the attribute or thing affirmed, and *queen*, the object.

How is syntax divided ?

Syntax is divided into *concord* and *government*. Concord is the agreement which one word has with another in gender, number, case, and person. Government is that power which one word has over another, in directing its mood, tense, or case.

From what is the word syntax derived ?

From two Greek words, *sun* or *syn*, with, to-

gether with ; and *taxis*, from *tasso*, to arrange ; hence, syntax, that branch of grammar which teaches the connexion or arrangement of words.

[The following Rules are copied from L. H. Hunt's Syntax of the English Language.]

RULE I.

A verb agrees with its nominative case in number and person ; as, The *crime* went not unpunished. *Crime* is the nominative case, because the verb which succeeds, requires, as every verb does, its nominative case expressed or understood ; and this is found by asking the question, *who* or *what* ; and the word which answers is the nominative ; as, What went unpunished ? Answer—The crime. Crime is the nominative to the verb went, and went is a verb irregular, from the verb *To go*, indicative mood, past tense, third person singular, to agree with its nominative case, *crime*, because *crime* is of the third person singular.

Example on the first Rule.

“ His *generals* in the early part of his reign *attempted* the reduction of Arabia Felix.”—*Gibbon's Rome*.

Note on the first Rule.

It sometimes happens that the sentence, or the infinitive mood, is the nominative case to the verb ; as, “ To mark the hand of a father in all the varied scenes of life, is an attainment of no ordinary

character." Here it is evident that the word *is* has no nominative, except, "To mark," &c. Either, therefore, the infinitive mood, or the whole antecedent sentence, is the nominative to the verb *is*.

When a verb stands between two nominative cases of different numbers, it may agree with either of them ; as, "The wages of sin is death." This, however, is merely to invert the sentence ; for then it will be, "Death is the wages of sin ;" which is the original rule of the nominative case and verb. Or it might have been, "The wages of sin are death."

RULE 2.

Adjectives, participles, and pronouns agree with their nouns or substantives in number, case, and gender ; as, a bad man, a loving wife, these books.

Bad is an adjective of the masculine gender, singular number, and nominative case, because it must agree with its substantive, which has all these properties : *loving* is a participle feminine, of the same agreement, in other respects exactly, with its substantive wife : and *these* is an adjective pronoun of the plural number, neuter gender, because *that* which has no life is neuter ; and nominative case, because its substantive or noun is supposed to be the same.

Example on the second Rule.

"Overt and apparent virtues bring forth praise, but there are secret and hidden virtues which bring forth fortune."—*Bacon's Essays*.

Note on the second Rule.

English adjectives, participles, and pronouns-adjective or adjective-pronouns, never change ; they take their case, gender, and number from the substantives to which they are attached ; and in return, they impart quality, nature, form, colour, &c., to the substantives ; as, a juicy apple ; a large white horse ; an obscured moon ; the noisy multitude.

RULE 3.

The relative must agree with its antecedent, that is, its foregoing noun or substantive, in number, gender, and person ; as, Wellington is a fine general, he fought at the battle of Waterloo ; This cat is an excellent mouser ; she is, however, very timid ; I value this book, it contains excellent rules. In these sentences, *he* has a relation to general, *she* to cat, and *it* to book.

Example on the third Rule.

“ *Dissimulation* is but a faint kind of policy ; for *it* asketh a strong wit and a strong heart to know when to tell the truth, and to do *it* ; therefore it is the weaker sort of *politicians that* (or *who*) are the greatest dissemblers.”—*Bacon's Essays*.

Note on the third Rule.

It sometimes happens that the relative can only be understood in the *possessive*, as relating to its antecedent. Example :—“ All men said all hopeful things, and admired my happiness, *who* had a son endowed with such a disposition.” It is evi-

dent that *who*, the relative pronoun, has no regular antecedent, but an understood one in the possessive pronoun *my*, as if it were said, "And they admired the fortune and happiness of *me*, who had," &c. &c.

RULE 4.

When two substantives come together betokening different things, the latter is put in the genitive or possessive case with the sign of ; or the former substantive has the apostrophised *s* ; as, The resolution of that man ; or, That man's resolution ; Satan's devices ; or, The devices of Satan ; Hope's deception ; or, The deception of hope.

Examples on the fourth Rule.

1. "Life's idle business at one gasp be o'er,
The muse forgot, and thou belov'd no more."—*Pope*.
2. "In the decline of the Roman empire, the introduction of Christianity gave rise to a new species of eloquence, in the apologies, sermons, and pastoral writings of the fathers of the church."—*Blair's Lectures*.

Note on the fourth Rule.

There are occasional ellipses on this rule ; *e. g.*, I went to see the curiosities of St. Paul's yesterday. Here *church* is understood. This ellipsis occurs both in speaking and writing.

RULE 5.

When two substantives come together, betokening the same thing, they are both put in the same case ; as, *Victoria*, the queen of England ; The

city of Athens ; William the Conqueror ; Julius Cæsar. Here Victoria and queen, city and Athens, William and Conqueror, Julius and Cæsar are all nominatives, put in apposition with each other. (Apposition means putting two nouns in the same case.)

Examples on the fifth Rule.

1. "About this time, that fierce and insatiable enemy of mankind, the *plague*, broke out in the city."—*Stories after Nature*.

2. "Mitchell was a desperate fanatic, and had entertained a resolution of assassinating *Sharpe*, *Archbishop* of St. Andrew's, who, by his former apostacy and subsequent rigour, had rendered himself extremely odious to the covenanters."—*Hume's England*.

Note on the fifth Rule.

It is very easy to understand when two substantives are what is called in apposition with each other ; *e. g.*, "O Lord, our ruler and protector." The question is, Who is the Lord ? Answer—Our ruler and protector. Again, Who is our ruler and protector ? Answer—The Lord. They are the same ; and are therefore put in the same case.

RULE 6.

When two or three or more substantives are connected by the particles *or*, *nor*, &c., the genitive or possessive case is found only in the last, though it is understood in every substantive : This is William, John, or Jacob's invention ; This is neither

Mary nor Margaret's book ; It is either John or Joseph's performance. (*Or* and *nor* are disjunctive conjunctions.)

Examples on the sixth Rule.

1. "Bishop Sherlock calls us to contemplate the difference between Mahomet and Christ's religion ; the one a system of war, the other of peace ; one of extinction, the other of forbearance."

2. "The sixth Edward and seventh Henry's reigns were prosperous, because both sovereigns were lovers of peace."

Note on the sixth Rule.

In the course of parsing it will be discovered that colloquial language especially abounds in ellipses. (Colloquial, relating to conversation.)

RULE 7.

The verb *To be* has the same case after it as it has before it ; as, I am *he* ; not, I am *him*. These are *they* ; not, These are *them*. It is *I* ; not, It is *me*. It was *she* ; not, It was *her*. It was *we* ; not, It was *us*, &c.

Example on the seventh Rule.

1. "*It is I* only who am to make peace as being the dictator of Rome, and my sword alone shall purchase it."—*Goldsmith*.

Note on the seventh Rule.

The pupil must always remember that the nominative, and accusative or objective cases of substantives are the same apparently ; but they differ *materially* by government.

RULE 8.

Every verb transitive (or active) has an objective or accusative case after it ; as, She loves *me*, and I love *her* ; The Goths sacked *Rome* ; Your master tells *you* to get the *bread*.

Examples on the eighth Rule.

1. " As you desire *me* to assign a *reason* for conduct of this kind," &c.—*Cicero's Letters*.

2. " The palm-trees which bear dates do not seem to be natural to this country, but were brought from abroad, as I never saw them wild in the fields, but only in the gardens."—*History of Chili*.

Note on the eighth Rule.

The word transitive signifies a passing on. In the sentence, " We perceived them ;" the verb *perceived* is transitive, because the action passes on from the word *we* to the word *them*. On the contrary, where the verb is *not* transitive, the substantive or adjective is not in the objective or accusative case, but is put in apposition with the preceding nominative : Example, " That we may be made partakers." The word partakers is here of the same case with *we*.

RULE 9.

When a nominative case comes between the relative pronoun and the verb, the relative shall be in such case as the verb will have after it ; as, " Brutus, *whom* Cæsar dearly loved, was amongst the conspirators who took away his life." " This is not the man *whom* I saw." In these sentences

whom is just as much the accusative or objective case as if it stood *after* the verb loved, instead of *before* it, because Cæsar, the nominative case, intervenes ; the same of the other *whom*, which is just as much the accusative case as if it stood *after* the verb saw ; because the nominative case *I*, comes between the relative *whom* and the verb *saw*.

Examples on the ninth Rule.

1. " *Whom*, having not seen, *ye love*."—*St. Peter's Epistles*.

2. " Happy I deem those to be, *whom* the gods have distinguished with ability to perform actions worthy to be related, or to relate them, in a manner worthy to be read."—*Pliny's Letters*.

Note on the ninth Rule.

There are more mistakes committed through want of attention to this rule, than perhaps in any other in the language. Let me entreat the attention of pupil and master to this rule, that it may be fully understood.

RULE 10.

English prepositions have commonly an accusative or objective case after them ; as, I am going *into* the garden ; He fought against *them* ; The robbers stood over *me*, and threatened to run a sword through *me*.

Examples on the tenth Rule.

1. " Matters being now brought into this happy train, a peace was concluded in the tenth year of *the war*, *between* the two *states*, and their *confederates*, for fifty years."—*Goldsmith's Greece*.

2. "It is of great use to consider the pleasures which constitute human happiness, as they are distinguished *into* natural and fantastical."—*Guardian*.

Note on the tenth Rule.

Of is the sign of the genitive or possessive case, when two substantives come together betokening different things ; but it is sometimes used without any such reference ; as, "Of these trivial matters little need be mentioned." The word *of* here, means concerning, and governs a case like prepositions in general.

RULE 11.

Participles govern the same cases as the verbs from which they spring ; *e. g.*, "Cæsar loving *him*, forgave the multitude of his offences ;" "Pompey, fearing his *adversary*, kept close within his entrenchments ;" "The ministers continually sending *soldiers* to the continent, continually suffered defeat."

Examples on the eleventh Rule.

1. "The Romans *having destroyed* all rival *pretensions* at home, began to pant after foreign conquests."—*Goldsmith's Rome*.

2. "Appius *having heard* this *most eloquent discourse*, or rather *defiance* of Virginius, still refused to give up the daughter."—*Goldsmith's Rome*.

Note on the eleventh Rule.

Participles are so called from the Latin word *participo*, to partake. This word describes their nature, and shows us that they govern cases, like

verbs, whilst they have also cases, like nouns, and are themselves the subjects of government ; as in the expression, " By *endeavouring* to do this ;" the participle *endeavouring* is the objective case, governed by the preposition by.

Participles sometimes stand instead of nouns ; as, 'The *necessity of fearing* ; 'The *desire of loving* ; 'The *dread of offending*. In these, and many other instances, the participles are parsed in the regular way as substantives.

RULE 12.

When two *verbs* come together without a nominative case between them, the latter is put in the *infinitive* mood ; also, when an *adjective* and a *verb* come together, the latter is put in the *infinitive* mood ; also, when a *participle* and a *verb* come together, the verb is put in the *infinitive* mood ; and sometimes also, when a *substantive* and a *verb* come together, the verb is put in the *infinitive* mood.—
1st. The two verbs ; as, She began to be angry ; He endeavoured to escape ; They offered to buy it.
2nd. An adjective and a verb ; as, He was a man worthy to be loved ; He was sufficiently firm to bear the load. 3rd. Participle and the verb ; as, " Being commanded to break the league, he set off with all expedition." " He, fearing to desert so noble, though so small an army, exposed himself to the most imminent dangers." 4th. Substantive and verb : " In order to effect this, he climbed a steep hill, and took the enemy in the rear." " His desire to perform this was obstructed."

Example on the twelfth Rule.

1. "But just when he *began* to *deliberate* about reimbarking his forces, he was joined by several persons of consequence, and the whole soon after came flocking to his standard."—*Goldsmith's England*.

2. "As long as the factions were divided, the triumphant blues and desponding greens *appeared* to *behold* with the same indifference the disorders of the state. They *agreed* to *censure* the corrupt management of justice and the finance, and the two responsible ministers, the artful Tribonian and the rapacious John of Cappadocia, were loudly arraigned as the authors of the public misery."—*Gibbon's Rome*.

Note on the Twelfth Rule.

The infinitive mood sometimes stands alone by the figure ellipsis: *e. g.*, *To rob* orchards! where is your honesty? *To be* so changed! how strange!

RULE 13.

The conjunction copulative *and*, and the disjunctive *or* and *nor*, link together similar moods, tenses, and cases; as, She *loved me* and *her*, and *corrected us* both.

Examples on the thirteenth Rule.

1. "Thebe *allured* away the dog, and *covered* the steps of the ladder with wool, to prevent noise; and then her three brothers ascending, one of them seized him by the feet, and another by the hair, and the third stabbed him to the heart."—*Goldsmith's Greece*.

2. "The decent and even obstinate resistance which he chose to affect, was contrived to justify his usurpation, *nor* did he yield to the acclamations of the army till he had provided the materials for the letter, which he dispatched to the emperor of the East."—*Gibbon's Rome*.

3. "He who relishes the beauties of a Virgil, *or* a Horace, will be eager to visit the spots, either marked by their footsteps, *or* immortalized by their poems."—*Kett's Elements*.

Note on the thirteenth Rule.

In the course of parsing, exceptions will be found in this rule ; but they merely relate to occasional difference of tense and number, and do not affect the general position of the Rule.

RULE 14.

1. When the conjunction copulative, *and*, comes between two substantives, the verb is put in the plural number ; as, The princes and princesses *are* coming to town this afternoon ; Virtue and confidence *have* ever been the pleasant companions of each other.

2. On the contrary, the disjunctive, such as *or*, *nor*, and *neither*, coming between two or more substantives, provided they be of the singular number, will make the verb *To be* singular also ; as, "By such a conduct as this *neither* faith, truth, *nor* charity *suffers* ; but by a contrary conduct, *either* disgust *or* hatred unquestionably follows.

Examples on the fourteenth Rule.

1. "The *infraction* of the company's charter, the immense and uncontrollable *patronage* granted to the commissioners, the *injury* done to the power of the crown, and to the liberties of the people *were* the principal arguments enforced within and without doors."—*Goldsmith's England*.

2. *Ignorance or indolence* has caused this mischief; *Charles, James, or Joseph* intends to visit them.

Note on the fourteenth Rule.

There are many mistakes made by inattention to these rules. The pupil will do well to consider the difference between them.

RULE 15.

Conjunctions, such as *though, if, that, &c.*, put *doubtfully* or *indefinitely*, govern a subjunctive mood; the ellipsis may, can, or should, being understood; as, Take care *that* he *be* punctual; *If* she *arrive* as soon as we expect, the mischief will be prevented; *If* he *undertake* that enterprise, he will expose himself to great dangers; *Though* he *slay* me, yet will I trust in him.

Example on the fifteenth Rule.

1. "If to speak in this manner *be* to corrupt youth, I confess, Athenians, that I am guilty, and deserve to be punished. If what I say *be* not true, it is most easy to convict me of falsehood."—*Goldsmith's Greece*.

Note on the fifteenth Rule.

If *I were*; If *he were*, &c., are expressions in frequent use. It is an idiomatical form of speech, and is reducible to no rule, except that of custom.

RULE 16.

In the English, as in other languages, there is a case *absolute*; that is, where a case is *independent* of the other parts of the sentence; *e. g.*, The *night* being far spent, he mounted his horse, and pushed through the forest; *Cæsar having arrived*, the enemy fled in all directions; *Opportunity serving*, my friend hastened to the house. Here *night*, *Cæsar*, and *opportunity* are so far unconnected with the other parts of the sentences, as to be absolutely without a *verb*, the common attendant of the *nominative case*; they are therefore called *absolute*.

Example on the sixteenth Rule.

1. "This *message not succeeding*, Menenius Agrippa, one of the wisest and best of the senators, was of opinion, that the desires of the people were to be complied with."—*Goldsmith's Rome*.

Note on the sixteenth Rule.

Under this rule may be arranged the nouns of time, space, &c.; *e. g.*, A *day* or two after this he returned; The opportunity given *this hour*, you may seek in vain the *next*; Wicked men carry a *witness* in their breast *night and day*; We *travelled* through a valley three miles long; Next

spring we go into the country ; London is distant from Edinburgh four hundred *miles*.

[The compiler of this little volume is indebted to Mr. L. H. Hunt's *Syntax*, for the foregoing rules ; a book which she earnestly recommends to all those who wish to attain a more perfect knowledge of their own language.]

PROSODY.

PART IV.

What is *prosody* ?

Prosody consists of two parts ; the former teaches the true pronunciation of words, comprising accent, quantity, emphasis, pause, and tone ; and the latter the laws of versification, or the art of writing poetry.

PRONUNCIATION.

What is *accent* ?

Accent is a particular stress of the voice on a letter or syllable ; as in the word *consume*, the accent must be on the letter *u*, which makes the last syllable longer than the first.

What is *quantity* ?

The quantity of a syllable is that time which is occupied in pronouncing it. It may be long or short. A vowel or syllable is long, when the accent is on the vowel, and it is pronounced slowly with the following letters ; as, *food, mouse, creature*. A syllable is short when the accent is on the consonant ; the vowel being quickly joined to the following letter ; as, *ant, cottage*.

What is *emphasis* ?

By emphasis is meant a stronger and fuller sound of voice, by which we distinguish some word or words on which we intend to lay a particular stress. The emphatic words must also be distinguished by a particular tone of the voice.

What is a *pause*?

A pause or rest, in speaking and reading, is a cessation of the voice, to enable the speaker or reader to take breath.

What are *tones*?

Tones consist in the modulation of the voice, and are the notes or variations of sound employed to express our sentiments.

FIGURATIVE LANGUAGE.

What is the difference between *plain* and *figurative* language?

Language is said to be plain, when it is understood according to its literal and ordinary signification; as, "A good man enjoys comfort in the midst of adversity." Language is said to be figurative when, either by the words employed, or by the peculiar manner of their application or arrangement, ideas are expressed with the addition of circumstances which render the impression more strong and vivid; as, "To the upright there ariseth *light* in *darkness*."

Figures in language are divided into two kinds; figures of words, or tropes, and figures of thought.

In tropes, the words are employed to signify something different from their original and ordinary meaning; as, A *clear* head; a *hard* heart.

In figures of thought, the words are used in their literal meaning, but are not applied or arranged in the ordinary manner; as, "*Awake, O sword, against my shepherd.*"

The figures of words and thought, which most frequently occur, are, Metaphor, Comparison, Allegory, Personification, Apostrophe, Hyperbole, Antithesis, and Climax.

METAPHOR.

Metaphor is a figure founded on the resemblance of two objects, the name and properties of the one being ascribed to the other; as, *Thy word is a lamp unto my feet.*"

COMPARISON.

Comparison, or Simile, is a figure founded on the resemblance of two objects, the one being likened to the other; as, "*The actions of princes are like those great rivers, the course of which every one beholds, but the springs of which have been seen by few.*"

ALLEGORY.

Allegory is a figure founded on resemblance, one subject being represented by another analogous to it; as in the following passage from the 80th Psalm, in which the people of Israel are represented under the image of a vine. "*Thou hast brought a vine out of Egypt; thou hast cast out the heathen, and planted it. Thou preparedst room before it, and didst cause it to take deep root, and it filled the land. The hills were covered with*

the shadow of it, and the boughs thereof were like the goodly cedars."

PERSONIFICATION.

Personification, or Prosopopœia, is that figure by which life and action are attributed to inanimate objects ; as, "What ailed thee, O thou sea ! that thou fleddest ?"

APOSTROPHE.

Apostrophe is that figure by which we turn from the subject, and address the absent or dead, as if they were present or alive, and were listening to us ; as in the following passage:—"And the king was much moved, and went up to the chamber over the gate, and wept ; and as he went, thus he said, O my son Absalom ! my son, my son Absalom ! would to God I had died for thee, O Absalom, my son, my son !"

HYPERBOLE.

Hyperbole, or Exaggeration, is that figure by which an object is magnified or diminished beyond its natural bounds ; as, "His speech was so deeply interesting and impressive, that the very walls listened to his arguments, and were moved by his eloquence." "He possessed a field of smaller extent than a Lacedæmonian letter."

ANTITHESIS.

Antithesis, or Contrast, is a figure of arrangement, by which two objects or sentiments are *represented in opposition* ; as, "If you regulate your *desires according* to the standard of nature, you

will never be poor ; if according to the standard of opinion, you will never be rich."

CLIMAX, OR AMPLIFICATION.

Climax is a figure of arrangement, by which every succeeding object or circumstance is made to rise above that which preceded ; as, " It is highly criminal to bind a Roman citizen ; to scourge him is enormous guilt ; to kill him is almost parricide ; but by what name shall I designate the crucifying of him ?"

[From Rudiments of English Composition, by Alex. Reid, A.M.]

METONYMY.

Metonymy is a figure in rhetoric, by which one word is put for another ; as, " He died by steel ;" that is, by a sword. " The kettle boils ;" that is, the water boils.—*Walker's Dictionary*.

VISION.

Vision is a figure of speech, used only in animated compositions. We use the present tense when relating something that is past, and describe it as actually passing before our eyes. Thus Cicero, in his fourth oration against Catiline :—" I seem to myself to behold this city, the ornament of the earth, and the capital of all nations, suddenly involved in one conflagration. I see before me the slaughtered heaps of citizens, lying unburied in the midst of their ruined country."

IRONY.

Irony is expressing ourselves in a manner contrary to our thoughts, not with a view to deceive, but to add force to our observations. Persons may

be reproved for their negligence, by saying, "You have taken great care indeed!" Ironical exhortation is a figure which, after having set the inconveniences of a thing in the clearest light, concludes with a feigned encouragement to pursue it. Horace having described the noise and tumults of Rome, adds ironically, "Go now, and study tuneful verse at Rome." The subjects of irony are vices and follies of all kinds; and this mode of exposing them is often more effectual than serious reasoning. The prophet Elijah, when he challenged the priests of Baal to prove the truth of their deity, mocked them, and said: "Cry aloud, for he is a god: either he is talking, or he is pursuing, or he is on a journey, or peradventure he sleepeth and must be awaked."

VERSIFICATION.

Versification is the arrangement of a certain number and variety of syllables, according to certain laws.

Rhyme is the correspondence of the last sound of one verse to the last sound or syllable of another.

Feet and pauses are the constituent parts of verse.—*Murray's Grammar.*

Our first eminent poet was Chaucer, who is styled, "The father of English poetry." The following lines were written by him.

"The busy lark, the messenger of day,
Saluteth with her song the morning grey;
And fiery Phœbus riseth up so bright,
That all the orient laugheth at the sight:
And with his beames drieth in the greves
The silver droppes hanging on the leaves."
Phœbus is the sun; orient is the east, and greves groves.

Robert Langland, a priest of Oxford, lived about the same time as Chaucer. He wrote a severe satire against persons of all professions, called, "The Vision of Pierce Plowman." It is without rhyme, and is written in a singular kind of verse, called alliterative. In satirising the magnificence of a monkish dwelling, he says:—

" I found there
A hall for a high king, a household to holden,
With broad boards abouten, y-benched well clean
With windows of glass wrought as a church,
And chambers with chimneys, and chapels gay."

Mrs. Markham's History of England.

ALLITERATION.

The beginning two or more words with the same letter, to give them a sort of rhyming consonance.

" The bookful blockhead, ignorantly read,
With loads of learned lumber in his head."—*Pope.*

Walker's Dictionary.

BLANK VERSE.

Blank verse is without rhyme ; it generally consists of ten syllables in each line.

" Of man's first disobedience, and the fruit
Of that forbidden tree, whose mortal taste
Brought death into the world, and all our wo,
With loss of Eden, till one greater man
Restore us, and regain the blissful seat,
Sing, heavenly muse !"—*Milton's Paradise Lost.*

PUNCTUATION.

Punctuation is the art of dividing a written composition into sentences, or parts of sentences, by points or stops, for the purpose of marking the different pauses, which the sense, and an accurate pronunciation require.—*Murray's Grammar.*

The comma (,) represents the shortest pause ; the semicolon (;), a pause double that of the comma ; the colon (:), double that of the semicolon ; and the period or full stop (.), double that of the colon. The dash (—) may be introduced where the sentence breaks off abruptly. The note of interrogation (?) is used when a question is asked. The note of exclamation (!) is applied to expressions of surprise, admiration, joy, grief, &c. A parenthesis () is a clause or sentence, containing some information or remark introduced into the body of a sentence, but which may be omitted without injuring the sense of it ; as,

“ Know thou this truth, (enough for man to know,)
Virtue alone is happiness below.”

An apostrophe (') is used to shorten a word, as *'tis*, for it is ; the apostrophe taking the place of the letter *i*. *Tho'*, for though, &c. The chief use of the apostrophe is to show the genitive case of nouns ; as, A man's character ; A woman's duty. An apostrophe also distinguishes the genitive singular from the nominative plural.

Nominative Plural.

My brothers are here.
The ladies are come.
I see your sisters.

Genitive Singular.

My brother's house.
The lady's child.
Your sister's book.

A caret, marked thus (Λ), is placed where some letter or word happens to be left out in writing, which letter or word must be written above the line. It is called a circumflex when placed over a particular vowel, to denote a long syllable ; as, *Euphrâtes*. A hyphen (-) is used in joining com-

pounded words ; as, lap-dog ; tea-pot, &c. A hyphen is also used when a word is divided ; the former part being printed or written at the end of one line, and the latter part at the beginning of another.

The acute accent (´), the grave accent (`), or the short and long accents.

A diæresis (¨) consists of two points placed over one of the two vowels, and which divides them into two syllables ; as Creätor, coädjutor.

A section (§) is the division of a discourse, or chapter, into less portions.

A paragraph (¶) denotes the beginning of a new subject.

A quotation (“ ”). Two inverted commas are placed at the beginning of a passage quoted or transcribed from an author ; and two commas in their direct position are placed at the conclusion.

“ Be wise to-day, ’tis madness to defer.”

Crotchets or brackets [] serve to enclose a word or sentence.

An index or hand (☞) points out something that requires particular attention.

A brace (}) is used in poetry at the end of a triplet, or three lines, which have the same rhyme ; also to connect a number of words of the same meaning, to prevent a repetition.

An asterisk or little star (*) directs to some note in the margin, or at the bottom of the page. Two or three asterisks are used when letters are omitted in a word ; as, K**g, for King, &c.

An ellipsis (—) is also used when letters or words are omitted ; as, Q—n, for Queen.

An obelisk, or dagger (+), and parallels (||) ; also the letters of the alphabet, and figures, are used as references to notes.

The letters *a. g.*, or *exempli gratia*, for example.

The letters *i. e.*, or *id est*, that is ; *id.* or *idem*, the same.

Viz., *videlicet*, that is to say.

Vide, see. *N.B.*, *nota bene*, take notice.

MS., Manuscript. *MSS.*, Manuscripts.

CAPITAL LETTERS.

The first word of every book, chapter, letter, note, or any other piece of writing, must begin with a capital letter. The first word also after a full stop, and generally after a note of interrogation and exclamation ; unless the sentences are thrown into one general group.

The appellations of the Deity ; as, God, Messiah, Providence, &c. Proper names of persons, places, streets, mountains, rivers, ships, estates, and public buildings. Adjectives derived from names of places, as Roman, English, Spanish, &c. &c. Titles of books, music, &c. The first word of every line of poetry, both rhyme and blank verse. The pronoun I, and the interjection O. Other words may begin with capitals when they are the principal subject of a composition.

THE END.





